

ARPREC: An Arbitrary Precision Computation Package

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Types of High Precision Arithmetic

- Double precision (16 digits): Conventional 64-bit IEEE arithmetic.
- Double-Double (32 digits): Can be done by using IEEE arithmetic techniques. Approx. 5 times as expensive as DP.
- Quad-Double (64 digits): Can be done using IEEE arithmetic techniques. Approx. 5 times as expensive as DD.
- Arbitrary precision (100 to millions of digits): Requires arbitrary precision arithmetic software.

Integer Relation Detection

Given a real or complex vector $x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ an *integer relation* (IR) algorithm seeks integers a_i , not all zero, such that

$$a_1x_1 + a_2x_2 + \dots + a_nx_n = 0$$

to within the available numerical accuracy.

- Original IR algorithm found in 1977 by Helaman Ferguson and Rodney Forcade.
- Current state of art: Ferguson’s “PSLQ” algorithm — recently named one of ten “algorithms of the century” by *Computing in Science and Engineering*.
- Very high numeric precision (hundreds or thousands of digits) must be employed in integer relation calculations.

Applications of PSLQ: Recognizing Numeric Constants

If α is algebraic of degree n , the polynomial satisfied by α can be found by computing the vector $(1, \alpha, \alpha^2, \dots, \alpha^n)$ to high precision, and then applying PSLQ.

Chaos theory example:

Let $B_3 = 3.54409035955\dots$ be the third bifurcation point of the logistic map $x_{k+1} = rx_k(1 - x_k)$. In other words, B_3 is the smallest r such that successive iterates x_k exhibit eight-way periodicity instead of four-way periodicity.

Computations using a predecessor algorithm to PSLQ found that B_3 is a root of the polynomial

$$0 = 4913 + 2108t^2 - 604t^3 - 977t^4 + 8t^5 + 44t^6 + 392t^7 - 193t^8 - 40t^9 + 48t^{10} - 12t^{11} + t^{12}$$

Recently a PSLQ program found that $\alpha = -B_4(B_4 - 2)$ satisfies a 120-degree polynomial, so that B_4 satisfies a 240-degree polynomial.

Applications of PSLQ: Euler Sums

Let $\zeta(t) = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} j^{-t}$ be the Riemann zeta function, and $\text{Li}_n(x) = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} x^j j^{-n}$ the polylogarithm function. The following were found using PSLQ computations:

$$\begin{aligned}
\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \left(1 + \frac{1}{2} + \cdots + \frac{1}{k}\right)^2 (k+1)^{-4} &= \frac{37}{22680} \pi^6 - \zeta^2(3) \\
\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \left(1 + \frac{1}{2} + \cdots + \frac{1}{k}\right)^3 (k+1)^{-6} &= \zeta^3(3) + \frac{197}{24} \zeta(9) + \frac{1}{2} \pi^2 \zeta(7) \\
&\quad - \frac{11}{120} \pi^4 \zeta(5) - \frac{37}{7560} \pi^6 \zeta(3) \\
\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \left(1 - \frac{1}{2} + \cdots + (-1)^{k+1} \frac{1}{k}\right)^2 (k+1)^{-3} &= 4 \text{Li}_5\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) - \frac{1}{30} \ln^5(2) - \frac{17}{32} \zeta(5) \\
&\quad - \frac{11}{720} \pi^4 \ln(2) + \frac{7}{4} \zeta(3) \ln^2(2) \\
&\quad + \frac{1}{18} \pi^2 \ln^3(2) - \frac{1}{8} \pi^2 \zeta(3)
\end{aligned}$$

Applications of PSLQ: Apery Sums

It has been known for some time, through the research of Apery, that

$$\begin{aligned}\zeta(2) &= 3 \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^2 \binom{2k}{k}} \\ \zeta(3) &= \frac{5}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{k-1}}{k^3 \binom{2k}{k}} \\ \zeta(4) &= \frac{36}{17} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^4 \binom{2k}{k}}\end{aligned}$$

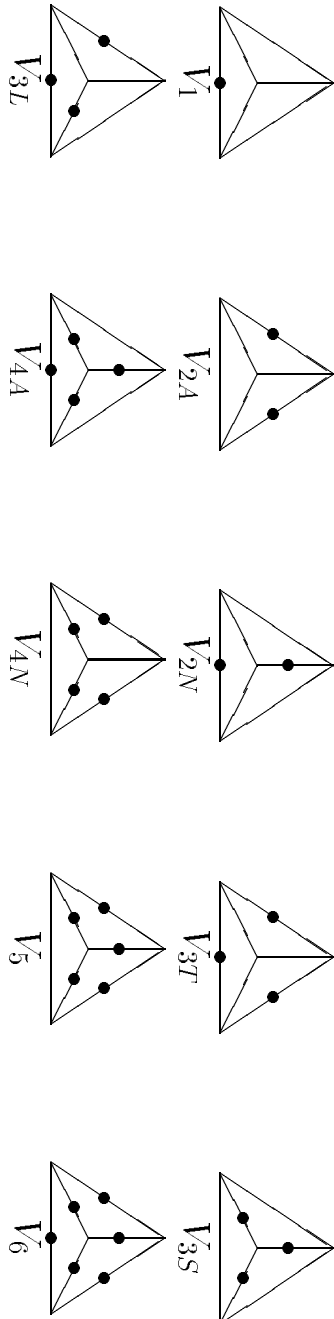
These results have led many to suggest that

$$S(n) = \sum_{k>0} \frac{1}{k^n \binom{2k}{k}},$$

for $n > 4$, might be a simple constant. It has now been shown that $S(n)$ can be expressed in terms of the Riemann zeta function $\zeta(n)$ and Clausen's function $M(a, b)$. A sample evaluation is

$$\begin{aligned}S(9) &= \pi \left[2M(7, 1) + \frac{8}{3}M(5, 3) + \frac{8}{9}\zeta(2)M(5, 1) \right] - \frac{13921}{216}\zeta(9) \\ &\quad + \frac{6211}{486}\zeta(7)\zeta(2) + \frac{8101}{648}\zeta(6)\zeta(3) + \frac{331}{18}\zeta(5)\zeta(4) - \frac{8}{9}\zeta^3(3)\end{aligned}$$

Ten Tetrahedral Cases from Quantum Field Theory



Evaluations of constants associated with the ten cases:

$$V_1 = 6\zeta(3) + 3\zeta(4)$$

$$U = \sum_{j>k>0} \frac{(-1)^{j+k}}{j^3 k}$$

$$V_{2A} = 6\zeta(3) - 5\zeta(4)$$

$$C = \sum_{k>0} \sin(\pi k/3)/k^2$$

$$V_{2N} = 6\zeta(3) - \frac{13}{2}\zeta(4) - 8U$$

$$V = \sum_{j>k>0} (-1)^j \cos(2\pi k/3)/(j^3 k)$$

$$V_{3T} = 6\zeta(3) - 9\zeta(4)$$

$$V_{3S} = 6\zeta(3) - \frac{11}{2}\zeta(4) - 4C^2$$

$$V_{3L} = 6\zeta(3) - \frac{15}{4}\zeta(4) - 6C^2$$

$$V_{4A} = 6\zeta(3) - \frac{77}{12}\zeta(4) - 6C^2$$

$$V_{4N} = 6\zeta(3) - 14\zeta(4) - 16U$$

$$V_5 = 6\zeta(3) - \frac{469}{27}\zeta(4) + \frac{8}{3}C^2 - 16V$$

$$V_6 = 6\zeta(3) - 13\zeta(4) - 8U - 4C^2$$

A Quadrature Example

Using a high-precision numerical quadrature program, Jon Borwein, Greg Fee and DHB observed that if

$$C(a) = \int_0^1 \frac{\arctan(\sqrt{x^2 + a^2}) dx}{\sqrt{x^2 + a^2}(x^2 + 1)}$$

then

$$\begin{aligned} C(0) &= \pi \log 2/8 + G/2 \\ C(1) &= \pi/4 - \pi\sqrt{2}/2 + 3\sqrt{2} \arctan(\sqrt{2})/2 \\ C(\sqrt{2}) &= 5\pi^2/96 \end{aligned}$$

where G is Catalan's constant (the third result appeared in the *MAA Monthly*, Aug/Sept 2002). These particular results have now led to several general results, including:

$$\int_0^\infty \frac{\arctan(\sqrt{x^2 + a^2}) dx}{\sqrt{x^2 + a^2}(x^2 + 1)} = \frac{\pi}{2\sqrt{a^2 - 1}} \left[2 \arctan(\sqrt{a^2 - 1}) - \arctan(\sqrt{a^4 - 1}) \right]$$

Peter Borwein's Observation on the Binary Digits of $\log 2$

In 1995, Peter Borwein observed that an arbitrary binary digit of $\log 2$ can be calculated by using a very simple algorithm:

Let $\{\cdot\}$ denote the fractional part. Then we can write

$$\begin{aligned} \{2^d \log 2\} &= \left\{ 2^d \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k 2^k} \right\} = \left\{ \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{2^{d-k}}{k} \right\} \\ &= \left\{ \sum_{k=1}^d \frac{2^{d-k}}{k} \right\} + \left\{ \sum_{k=d+1}^{\infty} \frac{2^{d-k}}{k} \right\} \\ &= \left\{ \sum_{k=1}^d \frac{2^{d-k} \bmod k}{k} \right\} + \left\{ \sum_{k=d+1}^{\infty} \frac{2^{d-k}}{k} \right\} \end{aligned}$$

- The numerators $2^{d-k} \bmod k$ can be very rapidly evaluated using the binary algorithm for exponentiation performed modulo k .
- Only a few terms of the second summation need be evaluated.
- All computations can be done with ordinary 64-bit floating-point arithmetic.

A More General Result

Any constant α given by a formula of the type

$$\alpha = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{p(k)}{b^k q(k)}$$

(where $p(k)$ and $q(k)$ are integer polynomials, $\deg p < \deg q$ and q has no zeroes for positive k) has the rapid individual digit computation property.

Is there a formula of this type for π ? None was known in 1995.

The BBP Formula for π

By applying DHB's PSLQ computer program to set of computed constants for which formulas of this type were known, with the numerical value of π appended, this formula was found for π :

$$\pi = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{16^k} \left(\frac{4}{8k+1} - \frac{2}{8k+4} - \frac{1}{8k+5} - \frac{1}{8k+6} \right)$$

Proof: An exercise in calculus.

Question: Why wasn't this formula discovered 250 years ago?

Some Other Constants with Base 2 BBP-Type Formulas

$$\begin{aligned}
\log 3 &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{4^k(2k+1)} \\
\log 7 &= \frac{3}{4} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{8^k} \left(\frac{2}{8k+1} + \frac{1}{8k+2} \right) \\
\pi^2 &= \frac{1}{8} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{64^k} \left(\frac{144}{(6k+1)^2} - \frac{216}{(6k+2)^2} - \frac{72}{(6k+3)^2} - \frac{54}{(6k+4)^2} + \frac{9}{(6k+5)^2} \right) \\
\log^2 2 &= \frac{1}{6} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{16^k} \left(\frac{16}{(8k+1)^2} - \frac{40}{(8k+2)^2} - \frac{8}{(8k+3)^2} - \frac{28}{(8k+4)^2} \right. \\
&\quad \left. - \frac{4}{(8k+5)^2} - \frac{10}{(8k+6)^2} + \frac{2}{(8k+7)^2} - \frac{3}{(8k+8)^2} \right) \\
\pi^2 - 6 \log^2 2 &= \frac{12}{\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^2 2^k}} \\
\pi \sqrt{3} &= \frac{9}{32} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{64^k} \left(\frac{16}{6k+1} - \frac{8}{6k+2} - \frac{2}{6k+4} - \frac{1}{6k+5} \right)
\end{aligned}$$

An Arctan Formula

$$\tan^{-1}\left(\frac{4}{5}\right) = \frac{1}{2^{17}} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^{20k}} \left(\frac{524288}{40k+2} - \frac{393216}{40k+4} - \frac{491520}{40k+5} + \frac{163840}{40k+8} \right. \\ \left. + \frac{32768}{40k+10} - \frac{24576}{40k+12} + \frac{5120}{40k+15} + \frac{10240}{40k+16} + \frac{2048}{40k+18} \right. \\ \left. + \frac{1024}{40k+20} + \frac{640}{40k+24} + \frac{480}{40k+25} + \frac{128}{40k+26} - \frac{96}{40k+28} \right. \\ \left. + \frac{40}{40k+32} + \frac{8}{40k+34} - \frac{5}{40k+35} - \frac{6}{40k+36} \right)$$

Similar formulas have been found for arctans of numerous other rational arguments.

Some Base 3 BBP-Type Formulas

$$\begin{aligned}
\log 2 &= \frac{2}{27} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{81^k} \left(\frac{9}{4k+1} + \frac{1}{4k+3} \right) \\
&= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{9^n(2n-1)} \\
\pi^2 &= \frac{2}{27} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{729^k} \left(\frac{243}{(12k+1)^2} - \frac{405}{(12k+2)^2} - \frac{81}{(12k+4)^2} - \frac{27}{(12k+5)^2} \right. \\
&\quad \left. - \frac{72}{(12k+6)^2} - \frac{9}{(12k+7)^2} - \frac{9}{(12k+8)^2} - \frac{5}{(12k+10)^2} + \frac{1}{(12k+11)^2} \right) \\
6\sqrt{3} \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{\sqrt{3}}{7} \right) &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{27^k} \left(\frac{3}{3k+1} + \frac{1}{3k+2} \right)
\end{aligned}$$

Normality

The real number α is *normal* to base b if every sequence of m digits in the base- b expansion of α appears with limiting frequency b^{-m} .

Widely believed to be normal base b for all bases b :

- π and e .
- $\log 2$ and $\sqrt{2}$.
- The golden mean $\tau = (1 + \sqrt{5})/2$.
- *Every* irrational algebraic number.
- Many other “natural” irrational constants.

But there are *no* proofs for any of these constants, for any base.

Normality proofs exist only for handful of artificially constructed constants, such as Champernowne’s number: 0.1234567891011121314...

A Connection Between BBP-Type Formulas and Normality

Theorem: The BBP-type constant

$$\alpha = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{p(k)}{b^k q(k)}$$

(where $p(k)$ and $q(k)$ are integer polynomials, $\deg p < \deg q$ and q has no zeroes for positive k) is normal base b if and only if the sequence $x_0 = 0$, and

$$x_n = \left(bx_{n-1} + \frac{p(n)}{q(n)} \right) \bmod 1$$

is equidistributed in the unit interval.

Proof Sketch: Let α_n be the base- b expansion of α after the n -th digit. Following the BBP approach, we can write

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha_n &= \left\{ \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{b^{n-k} p(k)}{q(k)} \right\} + \left\{ \sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} \frac{b^{n-k} p(k)}{q(k)} \right\} \\ &= \left(b\alpha_{n-1} + \frac{p(n)}{q(n)} \right) \bmod 1 + E_n \end{aligned}$$

where E_n goes to zero.

Two Examples

1. Let $x_0 = 0$, and

$$x_n = \left(2x_{n-1} + \frac{1}{n} \right) \bmod 1$$

Is (x_n) equidistributed in $[0, 1)$?

2. Let $x_0 = 0$ and

$$x_n = \left(16x_{n-1} + \frac{120n^2 - 89n + 16}{512n^4 - 1024n^3 + 712n^2 - 206n + 21} \right) \bmod 1$$

Is (x_n) equidistributed in $[0, 1)$?

If answer to Question 1 is “yes”, then $\log 2$ is normal to base 2.

If answer to Question 2 is “yes”, then π is normal to base 16 (and hence to base 2 also).

A Class of Provably Normal Constants

Using the BBP approach, Richard Crandall and DHB have now proven normality for a class of constants, the simplest instance of which is

$$\begin{aligned}\alpha_{2,3} &= \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{3^k 2^{3^k}} \\ &= 0.041883680831502985071252898624571682426096 \dots_{10} \\ &= 0.0AB8FE38F684BDA12F684BF35BA781948B0FC6E9E0 \dots_{16}.\end{aligned}$$

$\alpha_{2,3}$ was actually proven normal base 2 in a little-known paper by Stoneham in 1977. Crandall and DHB proved normality and transcendence for an uncountably infinite class that includes $\alpha_{2,3}$.

These constants also possess the rapid individual digit computation property. The googol-th binary digit of $\alpha_{2,3}$ is zero.

Overview of the ARPREC Package

- Based on earlier MPFUN-77 and MPFUN-90 Fortran packages.
- Code written in C++ for high performance and broad portability.
- C++ and Fortran-90 translation modules that permit conventional C++ and Fortran-90 programs to utilize the package with only very minor changes to source code.
- Arbitrary precision integer, floating and complex datatypes.
- Support for datatypes with differing precision levels.
- Inter-operability with conventional integer and floating-point datatypes.
- Common transcendental functions (sqrt, exp, sin, etc).
- Quadrature routines (for numerical integration).
- PSLQ routines (for integer relation detection).
- Special routines for extra-high precision (> 1000 digits) computation.

Structure of ARPREC Multiprecision Data

- An array of 64-bit IEEE floats.
- Word 1: Number of words allocated for array.
- Word 2: Number of mantissa words used; sign is sign of number.
- Word 3: Exponent (powers of 2^{48}).
- Word 4 through $n + 3$: Mantissa words, each in the range $[0, 2^{48})$.
- Word $n + 4$ and $n + 5$: For convenience in arithmetic routines.

Exact Arithmetic on 64-Bit IEEE Data

Double + double.

1. $s \leftarrow a \oplus b$
2. $v \leftarrow s \ominus a$
3. $e \leftarrow (a \ominus (s \ominus v)) \oplus (b \ominus v)$

Split.

1. $t \leftarrow (2^{27} + 1) \otimes a$
2. $a_{\text{hi}} \leftarrow t \ominus (t \ominus a)$
3. $a_{\text{lo}} \leftarrow a \ominus a_{\text{hi}}$

Double \times double (not needed if system has fused multiply-add).

1. $p \leftarrow a \otimes b$
2. $(a_{\text{hi}}, a_{\text{lo}}) \leftarrow \text{SPLIT}(a)$
3. $(b_{\text{hi}}, b_{\text{lo}}) \leftarrow \text{SPLIT}(b)$
4. $e \leftarrow ((a_{\text{hi}} \otimes b_{\text{hi}} \ominus p) \oplus a_{\text{hi}} \otimes b_{\text{lo}} \oplus a_{\text{lo}} \otimes b_{\text{hi}}) \oplus a_{\text{lo}} \otimes b_{\text{lo}}$

Normalize result (two words with 48 bits each).

1. $p' \leftarrow (p/2^{48} \oplus 2^{52}) \ominus 2^{52}$
2. $e' \leftarrow (p - p') \oplus e$

Performing High-Precision Multiplications Using FFTs

If $a = (a_j, j = 0, 1, \dots, n-1)$ and $b = (b_j, j = 0, 1, \dots, n-1)$ are two high-precision numbers, then their $2n$ -long product (except for release of carries) is merely the acyclic convolution of a and b :

Extend a and b by n zeroes, then compute:

$$c_k = \sum_{j=0}^{2n-1} a_j b_{k-j}$$

where the subscript $k - j$, if negative, is taken to be $k - j + 2n$. These results can thus be rapidly computed using an FFT:

$$c_k = F_k^{-1}[F_k(a) \cdot F_k(b)]$$

where for example

$$F_k(a) = \sum_{j=0}^{2n-1} a_j e^{-2\pi i j k / (2n)}$$

Additional time can be saved by using real-to-complex and complex-to-real FFTs.

Improvements from MPFUN to ARPREC

- Improved arithmetic performance: Schemes on previous viewgraph can be performed as register operations, which are very fast on modern RISC systems.
- Taylor's series routines: Routines for sine, cosine and exponential reduce precision as the size of terms decreases.
- Sine/Cosine: Argument is reduced to the nearest multiple of $\pi/256$, instead of $\pi/16$.
- FFT-based multiplication: A radix-four FFT algorithm is used, instead of a radix-two FFT.

Arithmetic Performance: **ARPREC** vs **MPFUN**

Arithmetic test loop (400 decimal digit precision):

- MPFUN = 14.78 seconds.
- ARPREC = 10.80 seconds.

Polylogarithmic ladder calculation (50,000 digit precision):

- MPFUN = 1408 CPU-hours on Cray T3E parallel system (32 CPUs).
- ARPREC = 1062 CPU-hours on IBM SP parallel system (64 CPUs).

Three State-of-the-Art Quadrature Routines

- Gaussian quadrature.
- Error function quadrature.
- Tanh-sinh quadrature.

High-Precision Gaussian Quadrature

An integral on $[-1, 1]$ is approximated as the sum

$$\int_{-1}^1 f(x) dx \approx \sum_{j=0}^n w_j f(x_j),$$

where the abscissas x_j are the roots of the n -th degree Legendre polynomial $P_n(x)$ on $[-1, 1]$, and the weights x_j are

$$w_j = \frac{-2}{(n+1)P'_n(x_j)P_{n+1}(x_j)}$$

The abscissas x_j are computed using a Newton iteration scheme, with starting value $\cos[\pi(j - 1/4)/(n + 1/2)]$. The function $P_n(x)$ is computed using an n -long iteration of the recurrence $P_0(x) = 0$, $P_1(x) = 1$ and

$$(k+1)P_{k+1}(x) = (2k+1)xP_k(x) - kP_{k-1}(x)$$

for $k \geq 2$. The derivative $P'_n(x)$ is computed as

$$P'_n(x) = n(xP_n(x) - P_{n-1}(x))/(x^2 - 1)$$

The Euler-Maclaurin Formula and High-Precision Quadrature

Let $h = (b - a)/n$ and $x_j = a + jh$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \int_a^b f(x) dx = & \frac{h}{2} (f(a) + f(b)) + h \sum_{j=1}^{n-1} f(x_j) \\ & + \sum_{i=1}^m \frac{h^{2i} B_{2i}}{(2i)!} \left(f^{(2i-1)}(b) - f^{(2i-1)}(a) \right) + E \end{aligned}$$

where the error term E is smaller than $h^{2m+1}/(2m+2)!$ times a certain definite integral that does not depend on n or h .

The E-M formula also applies for functions defined on an infinite interval, where $f(x)$ and all its derivatives tend rapidly to zero for large x . In this case, we have

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx = h \sum_{j=-\infty}^{\infty} f(x_j) + E$$

where the error term E tends to zero more rapidly than any power of h , as h is decreased.

The Error Function Quadrature Scheme

Let $g(x) = \operatorname{erf}(x) = (2/\sqrt{\pi}) \int_0^x e^{-t^2} dt$. Note that $\operatorname{erf}(x)$ ranges monotonically from -1 to 1. Thus we can write

$$\int_{-1}^1 f(x) dx = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(g(t)) g'(t) dt$$

Since $g'(t) = 2/\sqrt{\pi} \cdot e^{-t^2}$ goes to zero rapidly for large t , the integrand on the RHS is, for many $f(x) \in C^\infty(-1, 1)$, a nice bell-shaped curve for which the E-M formula applies. Thus we can write

$$\int_{-1}^1 f(x) dx \approx h \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} f(g(kh)) g'(kh) \approx h \sum_{k=-N}^N f(x_k) w_k$$

where $x_k = \operatorname{erf}(kh)$ and $w_k = 2/\sqrt{\pi} \cdot e^{-(kh)^2}$. The x_k and w_k values can be pre-computed.

The tanh-sinh quadrature scheme uses the function $g(t) = \tanh(\pi/2 \cdot \sinh t)$, whose derivatives tend to zero even faster.

Test Problems for Quadrature Routines

Well-behaved continuous functions on finite intervals:

$$\begin{array}{ll} 1 : \int_0^1 t \log(1+t) dt = 1/4 & 2 : \int_0^1 t^2 \arctan t dt = (\pi - 2 + 2 \log 2)/12 \\ 3 : \int_0^{\pi/2} e^t \cos t dt = (e^{\pi/2} - 1)/2 & 4 : \int_0^1 \frac{\arctan(\sqrt{2+t^2})}{(1+t^2)\sqrt{2+t^2}} dt = 5\pi^2/96 \end{array}$$

Continuous functions on finite intervals, but with a vertical derivative at an endpoint:

$$5 : \int_0^1 \sqrt{t} \log t dt = -4/9 \qquad 6 : \int_0^1 \sqrt{1-t^2} dt = \pi/4$$

Functions on finite intervals with an integrable singularity at an endpoint:

$$\begin{array}{ll} 7 : \int_0^1 \frac{t}{\sqrt{1-t^2}} dt = 1 & 8 : \int_0^1 \log t^2 dt = 2 \\ 9 : \int_0^{\pi/2} \log(\cos t) dt = -\pi \log(2)/2 & 10 : \int_0^{\pi/2} \sqrt{\tan t} dt = \pi\sqrt{2}/2 \end{array}$$

Functions on an infinite interval:

$$\begin{array}{ll} 11 : \int_0^\infty \frac{1}{1+t^2} dt = \pi/2 & 12 : \int_0^\infty \frac{e^{-t}}{\sqrt{t}} dt = \sqrt{\pi} \\ 13 : \int_0^\infty e^{-t^2/2} dt = \sqrt{\pi/2} & \end{array}$$

Oscillatory functions on an infinite interval:

$$14 : \int_0^\infty e^{-t} \cos t dt = 1/2 \qquad 15 : \int_0^\infty \frac{\sin t}{t} dt = \pi/2$$

Performance of Quadrature Routines on Test Problems

Prob.	QUADGS			QUADERF			QUADTS		
	Level	Time	Error	Level	Time	Error	Level	Time	Error
Init	9	2755.08		9	138.81		9	48.21	
1	6	8.90	10^{-422}	9	60.43	10^{-421}	7	13.61	10^{-390}
2	6	9.35	10^{-422}	9	39.91	10^{-412}	8	23.78	10^{-421}
3	5	4.43	10^{-420}	9	48.04	10^{-419}	7	12.76	0
4	6	9.15	10^{-420}	9	100.07	10^{-409}	8	40.97	10^{-421}
5	9	79.88	10^{-11}	9	72.97	10^{-420}	7	16.70	10^{-420}
6	9	3.66	10^{-12}	9	4.00	10^{-420}	7	0.91	10^{-392}
7	9	4.45	10^{-4}	8	2.45	10^{-210}	6	0.56	10^{-196}
8	9	77.73	10^{-6}	9	69.73	10^{-415}	7	16.14	10^{-417}
9	9	103.29	10^{-7}	9	74.59	10^{-416}	7	18.94	10^{-390}
10	9	33.13	10^{-4}	8	7.96	10^{-210}	6	2.48	10^{-194}
11	6/6	0.57	0	9/9	5.38	10^{-409}	8/8	2.37	0
12	9/9	96.89	10^{-4}	8/9	63.56	10^{-133}	6/9	45.85	10^{-217}
13	5/9	48.40	10^{-364}	9/9	70.26	10^{-97}	7/9	41.89	10^{-250}
14	4/9	79.18	10^{-126}	9/9	145.89	10^{-69}	7/9	86.80	10^{-165}
15	5/9	36.22	10^{-19}	9/9	44.11	10^{-17}	7/9	33.62	10^{-19}

The Experimental Mathematician's Toolkit

- Interactive tool based on ARPREC.
- All common arithmetic expressions — use Mathematica format.
- Many common math constants — π , e , $\log 2$, Catalan's constant, Euler's gamma constant, etc.
- Many common math functions — sin, cos, exp, sqrt, erf, zeta, etc.
- Quadrature, on finite or infinite intervals (choice of 3 routines).
- Summations, with finite or infinite limits.
- PSLQ calculations (choice of 1-, 2- or 3-level multi-pair routines).

Test program now available from author.

For Full Details

- David H. Bailey, Peter B. Borwein and Simon Plouffe, “On The Rapid Computation of Various Polylogarithmic Constants,” *Mathematics of Computation*, vol. 66, no. 218, 1997, pp. 903–913.
- David H. Bailey, “A Compendium of BBP-Type Formulas,” 2002.
- David H. Bailey and Richard E. Crandall, “On the Random Character of Fundamental Constant Expansions,” *Experimental Mathematics*, June 2001.
- David H. Bailey and Richard E. Crandall, “Random Generators and Normal Numbers,” 2002.
- David H. Bailey, Yozo Hida, Xiaoye S. Li and Brandon Thompson, “ARPREC: An Arbitrary Precision Computation Package,” Oct 2002.
- David H. Bailey, “A Comparison of Three High-Precision Quadrature Schemes,” Oct 2002.

Papers: <http://www.nersc.gov/~dhbailey/dhbpapers>

Computer code: <http://www.nersc.gov/~dhbailey/mpdist>